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The Journal of the Canadian Linguistic Association

Revue de l'Association Canadienne de Linguistique

Volume 3, Number 1



IIIe année, Numéro 1

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CANADIAN LINGUISTIC ASSOCIATION
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* * *

¶ *The Canadian Linguistic Association publishes a bi-annual Journal, the first issue of which appeared in October, 1954. Dues for Personal and Library Membership in the Society, which include subscription to the Journal, are \$2.00 a year, beginning June 1st. Cheques should be made payable to Dr. W. S. Avis, Secretary-Treasurer, and addressed to the Royal Military College, Kingston, Canada. Manuscripts in English and French should be sent to Prof. J.-P. Vinay, Section de Linguistique, Université de Montréal, C.P. 6128, Montréal, Canada.*

¶ *L'Association canadienne de linguistique publie deux fois par an une Revue, dont le premier numéro est daté d'octobre 1954. La cotisation, qui comprend l'abonnement à la Revue, est de \$2.00 par an, pour les membres de la Société comme pour les bibliothèques. Le renouvellement des cotisations se fait le 1er juin. Libeller les chèques au nom de Dr. W. S. Avis, Secrétaire-Trésorier, Royal Military College, Kingston, Canada. Les manuscrits (en français ou en anglais) doivent être adressés à J.-P. Vinay, Section de Linguistique, Université de Montréal, C.P. 6128, Montréal, P.Q., Canada.*

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Varia

(Items of interest for inclusion in this section should be sent to M. H. Scargill, University of Alberta, Edmonton, Alberta, Canada.)

- ¶ 1. The Canadian Linguistic Association will hold its meetings in June, 1957 in Ottawa. Next year the Conference of Learned Societies will move out West, and the C.L.A. will visit Edmonton. Welcome in advance!
- ¶ 2. Several members of our Association will attend the 1957 Conference of Linguists in Oslo. They include H. Alexander, J. P. Vinay, E. Reinhold, J. B. Rudnyckij, G. L. Bursill Hall.
- ¶ 3. Raven I. McDavid, Jr. writes to us as follows: "I am preparing for Alfred A. Knopf an abridgement of H. L. Mencken's *The American Language*, to be based on the fourth edition (1936) and the two supplements (1945 and 1948). I should be grateful for any information about statements of facts that are no longer completely accurate."
- ¶ 4. J. P. Vinay would like to know what is being done in Canada about transliteration of Cyrillic alphabets, especially for *Librairies*. A special system has been devised for use at the University of Montreal, but it might well be revised if information leading to uniformity could be assembled.
- ¶ 5. The *Encyclopedia of Canada* (1935) is being replaced by a completely new issue to be published by the Grollier Society (Editor: John E. Robbins). The work is expected to contain many words of Canadian origin together with explanations.
- ¶ 6. It has been suggested that a useful service would be performed if this section of the *Journal* could carry information about linguistic courses now offered in this country. The University of Montreal offers several courses, including Amerindian Linguistics, Applied Phonetics, Stylistics. The University of Alberta offers courses in Old and Middle English, the History of English, and General Linguistics. What about others?
- ¶ 7. From information we have received, it seems likely that the problem of teaching English to our many Hungarian refugees is going to do a great service to linguistic studies in Canada. The proven value of a structuralist approach in this area is leading many people to a wider interest in what modern linguistics has to offer schools and universities.
- ¶ 8. A magnificent course in English for Hungarians can be obtained from Professor Sebeok, University of Indiana. Quite apart from its immediate value to teachers of Hungarians, this set of lessons serves as a model of approach in using descriptivist methods in teaching English as a foreign language.

TAPE RECORDING IN DIALECT GEOGRAPHY : A CAUTIONARY NOTE

by

Raven I. McDavid, Jr., Western Reserve University

Rex Wilson has clearly demonstrated that tape recording is a useful technical aid for dialect field interviews, such as those for the Linguistic Atlas.¹ In his own work, Wilson obviously and properly handles the tape as a tool, not as a substitute for the fieldworker. Nevertheless, since the New World too often assumes that the development of a gadget automatically solves a problem, one may justifiably emphasize a few of the pitfalls for the investigator who uses the tape uncritically — and this while being in substantial agreement with Wilson's position.

It is important, however, that such skepticism be not the skepticism of inexperience, which is too often evident in criticisms of tape recordings. Linguistic geography, even in its modern sense, long antedates the tape, as it does the automobile, and experienced fieldworkers have developed a tradition of skilfully handling informants while transcribing in refined phonic notation at high speed. But Edmont and others who developed this tradition did not ignore the tape because they wanted to; it was simply not available, and would not become available till public policy and scientific initiative developed rural electrification and portable high-fidelity recording equipment. Rural electrification did not become general in North America until the New Deal of the 1930's; portable tape recorders were not developed until after World War II. When Edmont began his field work for the *Atlas Linguistique de France*, the cumbersome acoustic recording equipment of the time permitted no approximation of field conditions; and only slightly better were the conditions under which Hanley made the aluminum discs for the *Linguistic Atlas of New England*.

As recording equipment has improved, dialect investigators have used it in three different ways, not mutually exclusive :

1. In New England, disc recordings were used as supplementary material only, and no forms mechanically recorded were

¹ "The Implication of Tape Recording in the Field of Dialect Geography", *JCLA* 2 (March, 1956): 17-21.

added to the impressionistically transcribed field records. Allen and Miss Kimmerle have used their tape recordings in the same way, in the Upper Midwest and in Colorado, with two important modifications : 1) they have sometimes used their tapes to check the accuracy of their own phonetic transcriptions, and those of other fieldworkers, from the same informants. 2) Allen sometimes adds to the fieldbook a response (with a code designation) obtained from the tape.

2. Wilson principally, and other fieldworkers occasionally, use the tape to check the impressionistic record; the recorder runs throughout the interview, as the fieldworker transcribes, and is played back against the transcription as a source of additional forms (or instances of forms) and as a check on the phonetic details of the forms that have already been recorded.

3. Other investigators use the unaided tape as the source of the field record; that is, they make no transcription during the interview, but wait till they return to their base of operations and transcribe as the tape is played back. This procedure has been followed in Southern Illinois, in much of Indiana, and in at least part of the work in the Pacific Northwest. Sometimes, in fact, in Washington and Montana, the field investigator confines himself to getting the interview on tape and leaves the transcription to someone else.

After making a number of unaided impressionistic field records and a few with the aid of tape, after listening to several interviews on tape and examining the transcriptions made from them, I suggest the following conclusions, as a fair appraisal of the value of tape recordings.

Certain advantages of the tape are obvious :

1. Most obviously, the tape is a permanent record. Especially if made on a high-fidelity machine, it may be used repeatedly and duplicated for other scholars to check.

2. Replaying provides an opportunity for more accurate recording of many phonic details than one can achieve with unaided aural impression. This is especially true of supra-segmental phenomena like pitch, stress, juncture, and terminals; it is only slightly less true of vowel quality.

3. A tape may provide a fuller record, for many items, than one can hope to obtain unaided. Especially if the fieldworker puts his informants at ease and allows them to tell anecdotes when they want relief from the usual questioning, the tape can record alternative forms that reveal the divided usage that exists for many items in many communities. Particularly useful is this procedure for grammatical items : thanks to the spread of

popular education, nearly all informants (even illiterates) have some notion, however confused, of what constitutes 'correct grammar'; they will generally respond to direct questioning with what they consider the correct form, even though they use non-standard forms everywhere else during the interview. For some items — especially syntactic contexts involving the use of relative pronouns and their substitutes — direct questioning is very difficult, but the form is almost certain to appear in conversation. Consequently, experienced fieldworkers try to record as many conversational responses as possible; but even the most alert and experienced fieldworker may miss something a tape would catch.

4. The tape record of an interview may possibly reduce administrative expenses. Where trained fieldworkers are scarce, it may be more practicable — or even the only way — to have local investigators conduct the interviews and make tapes to be transcribed later at the headquarters of the project. It is manifestly easier to train a person in either interviewing or transcribing than in both techniques, and only a few of the largest universities can provide intensive training in close phonic transcription. Thus the tape interview may save money from the over-all budget, or at least stretch somewhat further the funds available for field work.

5. It is less certain that the tape recorder will shorten the interview and cut down on awkward fumbling and dead time, especially for inexperienced field workers. It is yet to be demonstrated that freedom from worry about fine shades of transcription actually lets the fieldworker progress more easily from one question to the next. Nevertheless, any device that reduces the self-consciousness of a beginning fieldworker deserves serious consideration for this reason alone.

Despite these recommendations, the tape recording is not without its potential disadvantages :

1. Even though the tape eliminates the need for fine details of transcription on the spot, the fieldworker still cannot devote undivided attention to the process of asking questions. If he doesn't have to decide at once on the particular degree of diphthongization, nasality, lip-rounding, or tongue-height, he must pay some attention to the behavior of a tape-recorder; even under optimum conditions, one must watch to see that the tape runs smoothly and the recording level remains constant. Consequently, there is still dead time, even though it may be masked — as it can be masked in an impressionistic interview — by the fieldworker's garrulousness.

2. The tape seldom really shortens the interview. Unless the informant is permitted to talk freely, the fieldworker cannot achieve one of the benefits of the tape : the gathering of alternative

responses (particularly of grammatical items) from free conversation. Furthermore, unless the fieldworker makes at least a broad transcription during the interview, whatever time he saves during the actual interview he will more than lose during the transcribing of the tapes; the fact that one can play back a tape several times to assure a more accurate transcription is almost certain to mean that the transcriber from cold tape will play it back for almost every item rather than trust his first impression. Consequently, the time required for making a tape and transcribing it can amount to four or five times that of an impressionistic field interview.

3. A fieldworker may be so concerned with one value of the tape that he produces a less useful all-round record than one made by immediate impressionistic transcription. Specifically, some tape-transcribing fieldworkers have concentrated so heavily on getting a refined phonic transcription that they have provided only fragmentary data on vocabulary and grammar.

4. It is generally conceded that for some phonic qualities even the best tape is less reliable than the unaided human ear. The very fidelity of the tape means that it will pick up not only the responses of the informant but such background noises as low-flying aircraft, passing trains, or trucks shifting gears. The fieldworker transcribing on the scene can often filter these noises out because he is near the informant and is aided by whatever facial movements the informant makes; but the transcriber from tape too often finds the responses hopelessly masked. Unless he makes his preliminary transcription before he leaves the community, and takes a supplementary tape to record those items he may have missed for one reason or another, he may not find important gaps in his record until it is too late to rectify them; and if he takes time between interview to transcribe the tapes, he has really not saved time or expense money. More important, no tape is as reliable for consonant quality as direct aural impressions.

5. Finally, the fieldworker who depends exclusively on the tape for collecting his data may find himself unable to operate without it. Despite the spread of rural electrification, many excellent informants — especially of the old-fashioned type — live in unelectrified homes; others, who have electricity, prefer to be interviewed where there are no outlets, as near a fishing hole or in the woodlot. And of course the investigator who habitually records on tape alone can be seriously embarrassed if the electricity is shut off or the recorder develops a defect.

In short, conceding all the advantages which the tape may have, one must return to the premise that it is only an aid to the interviewer, not a substitute for him. The fieldworker must learn to utilize the advantages of the tape while minimizing the unfavourable results of its defects :

1. The fieldworker must take as great pains in asking questions for the tape recording as he would if he were making a direct impressionistic transcription. He must handle his informants with as great skill, and be as flexible in adapting his questions to the circumstances of the interview. Not only must he memorize the questionnaire and follow up cues the informant may give him; he must remember to ask the second or third question when the circumstances call for it. For instance, in some areas *chicken coop* designates a large shelter for fowls; in others, a small portable shelter in which a single hen may be confined to keep her from leading her brood astray. The tape cannot remember that there are really two problems involved in the question: the name of the large shelter and the pronunciation of *coop*.

2. The fieldworker should transcribe in as great impressionistic detail as possible, while the tape is running, for it is far easier to check an existing transcription as the tape is played back than to transcribe from scratch. Naturally, the more experienced the observer, the finer detail he can incorporate without losing speed. But even the most inexperienced investigator should at least make sure he has recorded on the tape the responses for every item in the questionnaire, and indicated them with some type of respelling, so that the skilled transcriber in the home office can do his work most efficiently.

3. The investigator should not expect the tape recording to reduce the time of interviewing very drastically. He will be lucky if he can cut the time down by a fourth — to about four or four and a half hours, against the five to five and a half which the experienced investigator needs for the average full impressionistic record.² For the purposes of the inquiry, the tape is most useful if it provides additional data from free conversation, and free conversation always takes time.

4. The tape recorder alone will not develop skill in interviewing; it is no magic substitute for experience, by which a raw fieldworker can be turned into an accomplished one. As an instrument for making a linguistic record, the tape recorder is as good as the fieldworker who does the interviewing, and no better — though playing back a tape may show a fieldworker where he has erred, and enable him to profit from his errors.

If these remarks seem to throw some cold water on Wilson's

² These averages, of course, are subject to modification according to the physical condition and personality of the informant. The same questionnaire has taken as long as 27 hours to complete, with a very relaxed informant — with plenty of time — who enjoyed telling stories and who insisted on telling a new anecdote after every second or third question; on the other hand, it has taken little more than two hours with a very cooperative and alert but busy young informant. I doubt if a tape recorder could have shortened the latter interview to any appreciable extent: if I had had one, I would not have wanted to shorten the former — but rather to preserve as much connected text as possible.

enthusiasm, one should remember that in aims and practice he and I are very close together. Both of us realize that the tape record can add something to even the best impressionistic interview; both of us know that it is not a substitute for a fieldworker; both of us are concerned that this new technical aid should be used to its best advantage, and not be expected to accomplish what only a human interviewer can do.

THE TRANSITION FROM GERMAN TO ENGLISH IN THE GERMAN SETTLEMENTS OF SASKATCHEWAN

by

Robert Somerville Graham, University of California

0.1 Of the various peoples of continental European origin to be found in the Province of Saskatchewan, the Germans form perhaps the largest group. Found in almost every part of the province, they are actually in the majority in many parts of western and central Saskatchewan where German continues to play an effective role as a medium of communication. This is particularly true of such localities as Macklin, Leader, Tramping Lake and Luseland where large groups of Russo-Germans settled after World War I. The importance, too, of the agricultural character of these communities cannot be overemphasized. Stable, with very little shift in population, children grow up to take over from their parents or to settle on neighboring farms, often vacated by non-Germans. It is interesting, however, that the German-speakers of Saskatchewan neither display a marked language loyalty nor regard their language as a symbol of survival and this more than counterbalances the favorable environment for linguistic survival. Thus we find a rather rapid progression from German through bilingualism to English. This does not mean, of course, that with the shift to English all traces of the original mother tongue disappear, and it is the object of this study to examine the extent of German influence on the English of speakers of German stock. For this study, the specific area dealt with is that surrounding the town of Luseland, located in west central Saskatchewan.

0.2 The first wave of German-speaking settlers, composed of Germans and Russo-Germans, arrived in 1909 and settled south and west of the town. After World War I a second group arrived. These were Russo-Germans who settled to the north and east, replacing in many instances older settlers of non-German origin. However, whether these German-speakers were from Germany proper or Russia, they experienced little difficulty in communicating with each other in German. It is also true, of course, that they were nearly all literate, read only High German and expected to hear High German in their churches.

0.3 Bilingualism came into its own through the schools. Children of German-speaking parents, having to attend English school, learned English so readily that it soon became the only language they could read and write with any fluency. German was thus reduced to a spoken language used in the home and among the neighbors, and although attempts were made to teach the children to read German in Saturday church classes, the attempts were not very successful. German could not compete with English either in prestige or in usefulness.

0.4 In spite of the schools, the generation born between 1909 and 1925 did betray their German background in their English. This was due in part to the limited contact they had with native English-speakers in country communities, and also to the fact that, in most cases, their first contact with English was through their fathers who, having learned their English entirely by ear and having no pretensions to speaking good English, hardly altered their German speech habits when speaking it. Thus, in examining the influences of the German language background on the English of the younger generation, we will compare their treatment of English phonemes with that of their elders, and see what characteristics persisted the longest.

1. *Plosives*

In initial and final position [b] was unvoiced to become almost identical with [p]. Thus 'bull' and 'pull' were much more alike than in normal English, with the distinction being kept by means of the lenis/fortis contrast. Younger speakers came nearer to normal English by the introduction of a small amount of voicing and correct aspiration. In the case of [b] in intervocalic position, only older speakers substituted a [β]. This tendency was much more noticeable in some speakers than others, even though they had the same linguistic background. In initial position [g] and [d] were treated in the manner of [b]. Thus the contrast between 'crate' and 'great', 'trunk' and 'drunk' was much less than in normal English, in the speech of older speakers, almost normal in the case of the younger ones. A similar situation prevailed in the case of intervocalic [g] and [d] while in final position they were unvoiced to [k] and [t] and accompanied by an aspiration unusual to English.

2. *Nasals*

Final [ŋ] became [ŋk] in the speech of the older generation and persisted to some extent in the speech of younger speakers. This trait did not appear in intervocalic position and such words as 'singing' and 'hanging' became ['siŋŋk] and ['heŋŋk] or ['siŋŋ] and ['heŋŋ], the latter in keeping with the usual pronunciation of native English-speakers in the area. There was no attempt on the part of older speakers to substitute the German infinitives of such verbs as 'tanzen' and 'singen' for the English

[*'dænsɪn*] and [*'sɪŋɪn*] as these infinitives were pronounced [*'tantsə*] and [*'ziŋə*] in the dialect.

3. *Laterals*

No particular difficulty was experienced by German-speakers with the English laterals in any position; the [l] in 'light', 'allow' and 'cradle' was pronounced like the [l] in *leicht* 'easy', *alle* 'all' and *mädl* 'girl', with a notable failure on the part of the German-speakers to velarize final [l] and vocalize the [l] followed by a plosive. Thus, while native speakers said [kold] and [koud], [helpt] and [heupt], German-speakers pronounced [kolt] and [helpt] exclusively.

4. *Rolled dentals and uvulars*

The uvular [R] was uncommon among the German-speakers of the area. In the few cases in which it did occur, comprehension by native English-speakers was impaired through mistaking the [R] for an [l] or the [l] for an [r]. Most German-speakers used [r] in final and intervocalic position [ɹ] in initial position. Younger speakers acquired the English [ɹ] and used it correctly except after [t], when it acquired some of the quality of an [r], as in such words as 'water' and 'later' which became [*'wɔtər*] and [*'leɪtər*].

5. *Spirants*

As [x] and [ç] had no counterparts in the English of the area, they played no role in the English of German-speakers. On the other hand, [θ] and [ð] became [t] and [d] as in such words as 'both' and 'bother'. This pronunciation persisted with younger speakers with a tendency to combine [θ] and [t], [ð] and [d] in a sort of compromise sound.

5.1 In initial position [v] was rendered by [w] by many speakers in such words as [wɪltʃ] 'village' and [wɛrɪ] 'very'. More often [v] was unvoiced to [f] in all positions and persisted with younger speakers who continued to say [fɪltʃ] and [fɛrɪ]. This was one of the most persistent characteristics in the speech of the younger generation.

The aspirate [h], being essentially the same in German and English, offered no difficulties.

6. *Sibilants*

The [z] was consistently unvoiced by both groups. Thus 'raised' and 'raced', 'rise' and 'rice' were indistinguishable. The palatal [ʒ] also was unvoiced in [ka'raʃ] 'garage' and less voiced than the English in 'measure'. Initial [s], before a vowel, remained [s] but followed by a consonant, it became [ʃ] in the speech of older speakers who said [ʃtəp] and [ʃprɪŋk] for 'stop' and 'spring'. This substitution of [ʃ] for [s] rarely passed into the speech of the younger generation.

7. Affricates

The palato-alveolar [dʒ] became [tʃ] in the speech of both groups, although to a much lesser extent in that of younger speakers. Thus 'George' became [tʃɔrtʃ] and 'large' [lartʃ]. German-speakers themselves were usually unable to distinguish the words 'judge' and 'church' and, in trying to imitate English-speakers, pronounced them both [tʃatʃ], apparently not hearing the [ʃ] in 'church'.

8. Semi-vowels

In initial position [w] was regularly rendered by [v] only in the speech of the older generation who said [vimin], [vɔʃ] and [vɔs] for 'women', 'wash' and 'was'. Similar treatment was given to [hw] in such words as 'where' and 'why' which became [ver] and [vaɪ].

9. Vowels

The older and younger speakers both experienced difficulty with [æ] for which they substituted [e]. Thus 'bad' and 'bed' were both pronounced ['bet]. The tense and lax allophones of /i/ were treated in normal fashion so that there was no confusion between 'hit' and 'heat', 'mitt' and 'meat'. The diphthongs [aɪ] and [aʊ] were treated in German fashion with the second element having much longer duration than is customary in English. This trait persisted with the younger generation.

9.1 Stress is another department in which German exercised a phonetic influence. In English, equal stress is given to both elements of certain compounds such as 'ice-cream' and 'mince-pie'. The Germans, the younger generation included, put the stress on the first element only and said ['aɪskrim] and ['mɪnspeɪ]. The same thing occurred in the case of adjectives and nouns as in ['bɪgmən], ['lɪtlbɔɪ], ['fæstbeɪs] for 'big man', 'little boy' and 'first base'.

10. Syntactical Influences

These are to be observed in the formation of English sentences after German patterns. Thus the *time element* was usually placed too far forward, as in 'he came yesterday home' or 'I'll go tomorrow with him to town'.

English phrasal verb constructions, too, were treated like German separable prefixes in such sentences as 'I'm going with them out' or 'he threw the fish in the water back'.

Such calques as 'he made the door to' and 'I want to make a walk', though common in the speech of the older generation, did not persist in that of the younger speakers.

11. Lexical Influences

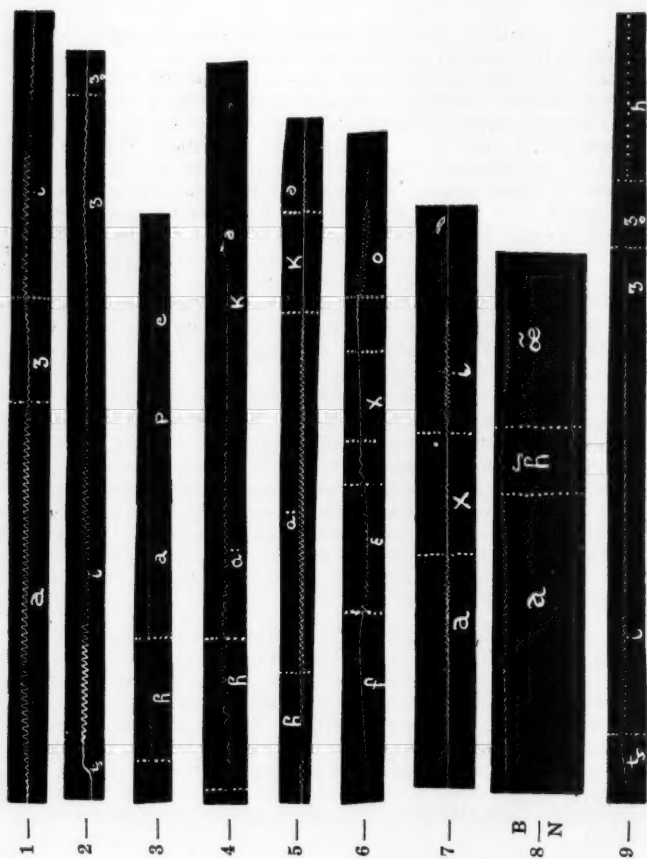
No German loan words persisted in the language of the younger generation. However, certain semantic transfers did

occur in the form of 'already', 'right away' and 'once' on the pattern of German *schon*, *gleich* and *mal*. Thus such expressions as 'he is there already yet', 'come right away quick' and 'come here once' were common. The noun 'hair' often became 'hairs', 'neck' was often used for 'throat' and 'thick' often meant 'fat', all in keeping with German *Haare*, *Hals* and *dick*. The use of 'all' for 'all gone' as in 'the bread is all', *das Brot ist alle*, did not occur.

12. The length of time the German in(uences persisted in the English of the younger generation depended on the frequency and intimacy of their contacts with native English-speakers. on the keenness of their observation. on the sensitiveness of their ear and on the desire to perfect their English. However, unless those born between 1909 and 1925 left the rural area, their English continued to be influenced by their German background. The children of these people, the second Canadian-bred generation, have pretty well lost all trace of that background and in many cases are unable to speak German. Nor have any germanicisms been adopted into Saskatchewan English. Even German cooking has been largely replaced by that common to the English-speaking population and the only words of German origin that persist are those that are common to the English of the entire country such as *sauerkraut* and *pumpernickel*, although the latter is of recent importation. Nor was the English of native English-speaking school children influenced by the substandard patterns of their school companions of German stock. This was due, of course, to the corrective influence of English-speaking parents. However, about five German expressions gained some currency: *was ist los?* 'what is the matter?' *nichts kommt heraus* 'nothing comes out of it' *wie geht's?* 'how are you?' *komm mal hierher* 'come here' and *ich bin ausgespielt* 'I am played out'. It is also significant that no non-German in the community ever made a serious attempt to learn German. This would seem to be due not to prejudice but to lack of incentive.

12.1 Today, in 1957, even the German churches have become largely English-speaking and every year more are being served by Canadian-born ministers and priests. Although there has been a certain influx of Germans from Europe since World War II, the younger ones tend to assimilate as fast as possible. German continues, of course, to be the usual language of the European-born generation, now made up of people in their sixties and seventies. With their passing, German will still be spoken on occasion by their children, but their usual language will be English.

La spirantisation du /ž/



LA SPIRANTISATION DU [ž]

par

l'abbé René Charbonneau, Université de Montréal

1. Une prononciation tout à fait singulière et maintes fois entendue dans le milieu étudiant au collège classique de l'Assomption, ville située à quelque 25 milles au nord de Montréal, nous fournit l'occasion d'analyser expérimentalement sa structure et d'établir ses principales caractéristiques.

Tous les gens de cette agglomération dont le parler est le français emploient, à quelques exceptions près, la fricative palato-alvéolaire /ž/ de façon distincte et constante. Cependant, l'observateur quelque peu exercé entendra chez certains individus toute une gamme de variantes du phonème mentionné. Dans des mots comme *agi*, *japper*, à *jeun*, la fricative sonore peut se réaliser comme [H], soit [aHi], [HaPe], [aHœ], ces réalisations variant également, pour un même individu, selon le contexte phonétique ou suivant des variations individuelles : [aHi], [ahi], [axi].¹

2. De telles prononciations ne sont pas particulières au franco-canadien et on les retrouve en France. Il suffit de consulter l'A.L.F. aux cartes nos 630, 632, 639, aux points 536, 514, 529, 621 pour les repérer dans le centre-ouest de la France, tout spécialement au nord de Vienne, dans les deux Sèvres, les Charentes, la Gironde ainsi que dans le Val de Loire, abstraction faite des endroits sur lesquels l'atlas n'apporte aucun renseignement. Il serait intéressant de connaître la distribution de ces variantes à l'intérieur des aires linguistiques du Canada français. Nous essaierons de répondre à cette question après avoir considéré l'aspect physiologique des nombreux allophones du /ž/ et avoir esquissé leur distribution d'après les données d'une enquête phonologique pratiquée auprès des sujets de notre entourage.

3. Cette enquête a porté sur la prononciation du /ž/ et de ses variantes chez quarante sujets, étudiants du Collège de l'Assomption au cours de l'année 1956 et provenant en grande partie de Repentigny, L'Assomption, Joliette, Saint-Jacques-de-Montcalm et des environs. Les prononciations des sujets les plus caracté-

¹ On a utilisé au cours de l'enquête et des enregistrements les symboles de l'API; mais, à cause de difficultés d'impression, on a volontairement simplifié les notations. Ici, [H] note la fricative laryngale sonore, dont les variantes assourdisées et nasalisées sont indiquées par les diacritiques habituels.

ristiques ont été enregistrées sur bande sonore; les autres, interprétées directement par l'enquêteur.

3.1 La sélection des sujets fut très soignée et au surplus préméditée. L'observateur n'a écouté que l'étudiant de douze à vingt ans qui employait un /ž/ différent de celui de ses camarades. Comme il existe à quinze milles au nord-ouest de L'Assomption un îlot linguistique tout à fait compact où les allophones du /ž/ sont en grande majorité, le choix a été d'emblée favorable aux jeunes dont les parents sont de descendance acadienne et qui ont conservé une prononciation typiquement régionale.

3.2 Quelques questions se rapportant à la famille de l'étudiant : lieux d'origine des parents et des grands-parents, professions, migrations d'une région vers une autre, ont été posées avant l'audition.

4. Une série de mots isolés et dix phrases comportant le phonème /ž/ en différentes positions ont servi à l'établissement de la liste d'enquête. Ces positions sont les suivantes :

/ž/	intervocalique accentuée :	groupes	a) <i>agi</i> ,	[aži]
			b) <i>agile</i> ,	[ažil]
	intervocalique inaccentuée :	groupes	a) <i>conjuger</i> ,	[kōžyre]
			b) <i>majuscule</i> ,	[mažyskyl]
	initiale accentuée	groupes	a) <i>gens</i> ,	[žā]
			b) <i>Gilles</i> ,	[žil]
	initiale inaccentuée :		<i>japper</i> ,	[žape]
			<i>Japon</i> ,	[žapō]
	finale absolue :		<i>tige</i> ,	[ti:ž]
			<i>âge</i> ,	[a:ž]

L'emploi du mot isolé dans une expérience semblable n'est pas sans inconvénients. Pour parer à cette difficulté, il fut répété jusqu'à six et sept fois, puis repris dans le cadre d'une phrase complète. Exemple : *jupe...; sa jupe coûte cinq dollars; cinq dollars est le prix de la jupe*. Des mots employés couramment et d'autres à peu près inusités ont servi à l'expérience. Le but était d'observer

le rôle de l'habitude dans la fixation d'une prononciation. On trouvera le questionnaire à la fin de cet article.

5. Données expérimentales

Afin de faire mieux ressortir les caractéristiques articulatoires et acoustiques des sons étudiés, nous avons enregistré, à titre de comparaison, des [ž] en positions diverses. Nous résumons ci-dessous les résultats obtenus à l'aide du kymographe et de l'électro-kymographe. (Voir tracés p. 14)

5.1 Le [ž] de *agit* [aži], en position intervocalique accentuée (tracé no 1), présente les caractéristiques habituelles des fricatives. Après l'émission de la voyelle [a], la bouche se referme partiellement et la constriction est indiquée par le soulèvement du stylet. Les vibrations deviennent plus petites dans la première partie de l'émission et plus grandes dès que la force accentuelle ou que la poussée d'air augmente. La plume rejoint la ligne de repère dès le début de la voyelle [i]. [ž] étant sonore comporte des vibrations. L'expérience avec [š] donne les mêmes résultats, sauf que pour la fricative sourde, le soulèvement de la ligne médiane est encore plus marqué.

5.2 En position finale, [ž] peut présenter un tracé en partie différent : la sonore devient quelquefois incertaine et tend à se terminer comme un [š]. C'est le cas du tracé no 2 [ti:žs] où, après le train d'ondes caractéristique de la fricative sonore, on remarque un net assourdissement (La fin de la phrase d'assourdissement a été coupée sur le papier fumé par nécessité). Le phénomène inverse se produit fréquemment lorsque le [ž] est à l'initiale. A cause d'un accroissement de force articulatoire : accent d'insistance, accent secondaire initial, etc., la fricative est partiellement assourdie dans sa première partie. Une expérience avec le mot *japper*, [žape] donne [šžape].

5.3 La fricative laryngale sonore [H] souvent entendue en anglais entre des sons voisés comme *behave*, *manhood*, a été relevée chez plusieurs enquêtés dans toutes les positions à l'exception de la finale. On a reproduit ici (tracé no 3) un tracé de cette laryngale en position initiale inaccentuée, type 1A ([H] + voyelle) *japper*, [Hape] et en position initiale inaccentuée, type 1 bis ([H] + voyelle + consonne) *Jacques*, [Hɑ:k], tracé no 4. Le [H] des tracés nos 3 et 4 est clairement visible et de forme caractéristique. Pour son émission, la position des organes est homologue à celle de la voyelle mais il est prononcé, comme l'affirme Jones, avec une telle force d'expiration que l'air produisant une friction considérable dans la glotte, a pour effet d'entraîner les cordes à vibrer. Sur les tracés nos 3 et 4, on constate en effet un train d'ondes relativement semblable à celui d'une voyelle, mais beaucoup plus relâché. La distance entre les festons indique qu'on a prononcé un son grave. On notera aussi, d'après d'autres

expériences enregistrées, que le [H] est d'autant mieux discerné que la voyelle suivante est une vélaire. La sonorité du [H] est confirmée par le tracé électro-kymographique de [Hape], tracé no 5. Le type 1 bis présente le même phénomène.

5.4 La fricative vélaire sourde [x] du type *il fait chaud*, [fexo], tracé no 6, se retrouve également mais en fréquence assez faible chez les enquêtés. C'est la fricative sourde de l'espagnol [bjaxero], [xabon], de l'allemand, de l'écossais et du russe. À l'oreille, ce son donne l'impression d'un râle ou même d'un [R] sourd. Le tracé présente à peu près les mêmes caractéristiques que pour celui d'un [š]. Ici cependant, on observera que le [x] a tendance à une faible sonorité juste avant l'émission de la voyelle suivante. La même remarque se dégage de nos tracés pour des mots comme *mâcher*, [maše], *juchoir*, [žyšwa:r], *lécha*, [leša], *Joachim*, [žwašē], etc. Cette sonorité n'est pas assez marquée pour être considérée comme aboutissant à la sonore correspondante [ɣ] : c'est plutôt un voisement progressif qui prépare l'apparition de la voyelle finale.

5.5 La fricative vélaire sourde [x] existe non seulement chez les sujets qui réalisent ainsi le [š] ; elle peut aussi représenter une réalisation de [ž] : *agi* est alors prononcé [axi]. Il a été difficile d'obtenir un tracé bien net de [axi] au kymographe. L'électro-kymographe en fait mieux ressortir les caractéristiques. (tracé no 7) : on remarquera l'opposition entre les voyelles [a] et [i] qui encadrent la fricative sourde de [X]. On saisira mieux les différences entre [ž], [H] et [x] si on compare les numéros 1, 3 et 7. La tenue de [x] n'offre pas cependant l'aspect d'une consonne complètement sourde. On peut penser que l'air accumulé pour [a] met encore les cordes vocales en branle lorsque la constriction se fait brusquement. Il peut y avoir absence complète de sonorité, mais il y a souvent dévoisement partiel.

5.6 Le tracé no 8 à *jeun*, [ažœ] donne un bon exemple de tracé pour la fricative glottale sonore nasalisée. Peu fréquente, celle-ci existe cependant nettement chez quelques sujets. Dans le tracé reproduit ici, on retrouve bien sur la ligne buccale les mêmes données que pour [Hɑ:k], tracé no 4. Les vibrations sont cependant moins accentuées, la force d'air expulsé étant réduite considérablement par suite de l'abaissement du voile du palais. La ligne nasale offre une courbe sinusoïdale qui dénote une forte expulsion nasale. La fin du tracé (ligne buccale) est partiellement assourdie : cela s'explique sans doute par la poussée intense du début qui s'amenuise jusqu'à zéro avant l'émission de la voyelle finale.

5.7 Notons enfin que le [ž] de [ti:ž] peut devenir partiellement sourd en position finale accentuée et suivi d'une aspirée sourde [h], ce qui n'était pas le cas au tracé no 2. Si le [h] n'apparaît pratiquement jamais en finale dans une prononciation nor-

male, il est assez fréquent chez les sujets qui spirantisent le [ž]. C'est le cas du tracé no 9 où, après l'émission du [ž], on trouve un segment sourd, puis une expiration continue du souffle formulée par [h].

6. D'après les résultats de l'enquête, on peut résumer ainsi les allophones ou variantes idiolectales du phonème /ž/ chez les étudiants examinés :

/ž/	{	[ž]	(žš)
		[H]	
		[X]	
		[H] nasal	
		[h]	(žšh)

(A suivre / To be continued)

NOTES ON THE PRONUNCIATION OF CANADIAN ENGLISH AS SPOKEN IN VANCOUVER, B.C.

by

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1. In the studies of Canadian English which have appeared up to date,¹ emphasis has largely been placed on the social-historical factors which account for the distribution of different groups of English-speaking settlers. This work, of course, provides an indispensable basis for further linguistic investigations, and equally useful are the lexical distributions that have been studied. In the phonological field, however, there is an urgent need for more material based on first-hand phonetic observation.

2. The present article sets out to analyse phonetically the English spoken in the Vancouver area, specifically among the younger generation. Some fifty local students, ranging in age from sixteen to twenty-two, have co-operated in this exploratory analysis during the last two years, and the detailed investigation of their speech has been supplemented and checked by further investigation outside the group. Among the older generation it was generally noticed that, as a result of sophisticated modifications of their speech habits, wide divergencies often occur which frustrate systematic treatment. The speech of the younger people, however, like their dress and their 'attitudes' in general, is usually influenced by their eagerness to conform with their contemporaries. It is among them that we may note the development of a distinct regional standard pronunciation.² There is of course no question of a narrow regionalism here, for even a casual observation provides hints of a much wider conformity in speech, embracing in its main features not only the province of B.C., but probably most of English-speaking Canada.

3. *Note on vowel quantity.*

Before embarking on a detailed study of the Vancouver (Van.) vowel system, we must note two general features:

3.1 In Standard Southern British (SSB) as described by D. Jones, W. Ripman and others, vowels are often distinguished by

¹ See Walter S. Avis, "A Bibliography of Writings on Canadian English," in *JCLA*, Vol. 1, No. 2, (October 1955), 19 and 20.

² See H. C. Wyld, *A History of Modern Colloquial English (HMCE)* (London 1920), pp. 6-7.

a complex of attributes, viz., duration and timbre. Thus the 'long' vowels in *seal* [si:l], *aunt* [ɑ:nt], *taught* [tɔ:t], *fool* [fu:l] are different in quality as well as quantity when compared with their 'short' counterparts in *sill* [sɪl], *ant* [ænt], *tot* [tɒt], *full* [fʊl].

In Van., as in many types of American (and other versions of Canadian) English, this duplication of distinguishing features is largely lost. In other words, there is no constant relationship between quality and duration in vowels with relatively strong stress, the traditionally short vowels³ being frequently lengthened especially in association with a change of pitch, for example, the falling or rising pitch at the end of an utterance. In such cases the vowels in *is* [i:z], *Sam* [sæ:m], *cot* [kɒ:t], *pull* [pu:l] are not distinguished in length from the corresponding traditionally long vowels in *ease* [i:z], *psalm* [sɑ:m], *caught* [kɒ:t], *pool* [pu:l]. In the case of the vowel [ɒ], this lengthening may produce a pair of homophones, e.g., *cot* and *caught* above, or *sod* [sɒ:d] and *sawed* [sɔ:d].

3.2 As a variant of these lengthened 'short' vowels in Van., a centring diphthong may also be heard, with a more or less noticeable [ə]-glide, e.g., the words quoted above in (a) would be [ɪəz], [sæəm], [kɒət], [puəl].

4. Vowel length is thus never used distinctively in Van., and there is no need to mark it in transcription, as it can be stated once and for all that the only consistently short vowel is [ə], which is always weakly stressed. D. Jones has noted the same tendency to abandon the traditional chronemic distinctions among the younger people in Southern England at the present time⁴ and also the same development of centring diphthongs in place of the former short vowels.⁵

5. The vowels and diphthongs listed below under 6 and 7 have been identified in Van. They are like the corresponding sounds in SSB⁶ or in General American (GA)⁷ except where otherwise noted.

6. The Vowels

No. 1 [i] is a close front vowel, generally pronounced with tense tongue muscles, non-diphthongal, and long when stressed. It occurs in words like *Pete* [pit], *speed* [spid], *leaf* [lif], *yeast* [jist]. In pre- and post-tonic positions a shorter version occurs :

³ See Nos. 3, 4, 5, 7, 9, 11 in 6. below.

⁴ *The Phoneme Its Nature and Use* (Cambridge, England, 1950), p. 169, footnote.

⁵ *The Pronunciation of English (PE)* (Cambridge, England, 1950), p. 35, No. 86.

⁶ See D. Jones, *PE*, Nos. 70-219.

⁷ See C. K. Thomas, *An Introduction to the Phonetics of American English (IPAE)* (New York 1947), Chapters 5-15.

belong [bi'lɒŋ], *delicious* [di'liʃəs], *lovely* ['lʌvli], *sorry* ['sɒri].

- No. 2 [i] is intermediate between No. 1 and No. 3 in tongue-position and tension, and is generally half-long. It occurs only before [r] in words like *here* [hɪr], *clear* [klɪr], *near* [nɪr], *nearer* ['nɪər], *mirror* ['mɪər], *spirit* ['spɪrɪt], *syrup* ['sɪrəp], *lyric* ['lɪrɪk].
- No. 3 [ɪ] is also a close front vowel, but compared with No. 1, it has a lower and more retracted tongue-position, and much less tension.⁸ It occurs in *pit* [pɪt], *big* [bɪg], *give* [gɪv], *hill* [hɪl], *thinking* ['θɪŋkɪŋ], *garlic* ['gɑrlɪk].
- No. 4 [ɛ] is a half-open front vowel. Like the Northern English and American [ɛ], it is generally an opener vowel than the corresponding sound in SSB. It occurs in *pet* [pet], *ten* [ten], *text* [tekst], *lever* ['levər], *bear* [ber]. Some speakers use this vowel in words like *Barry*, *parry*, etc., which are thus homophones of *berry*, *Perry* ['berɪ], ['perɪ]. The same speakers also treat as homophones *Harry* and *hairɪ* ['herɪ], *marry*, *Mary* and *merry* ['merɪ].
- No. 5 [æ] is an open front vowel. It occurs in *pat* [pæt], *happy* ['hæpi], *gather* ['gæðər], *dance* [dænts], *glass* [glæs], *ant*, *aunt* [ænt], *fast* [fæst], *laugh* [læf], *half* [hæf].
- No. 6 [ɑ] is an open back vowel. It occurs in *part* [part], *balm* [bɑm],⁹ *father* ['fɑðər], *amen* [ˌɑ'men], *almond* ['ɑmənd], *salmon* ['sɑməŋ].
- No. 7 [ɒ] is also an open back vowel, but it is distinguished from No. 6 by slight lip-rounding. It is usually more [ɑ]-like than the corresponding vowel in SSB, but less [ɑ]-like than its counterpart in GA. It occurs in *pot* [pɒt], *block* [blɒk], *lost* [lɒst], *bomb* [bɒm], *bother* ['bɒðər], *solder* ['sɒdər], *coffee* ['kɒfi], *office* ['ɒfɪs], *logger* ['lɒgər], *cot*, *caught* [kɒt], *collar*, *caller* ['kɒlər] and (usually) *lilac* ['læɪlək].
- No. 8 [ɔ] is a strongly rounded half-open back vowel, like the vowel in SSB *paw* [pɔ]. It occurs only before

⁸ See D. Jones, PE, No. 75.

⁹ Some speakers use vowel No. 7 in these words: [bɒm], ['bɒðər], ['sɒməŋ], etc., which makes *balm* and *bomb* homophones, and makes *father* rhyme with *bother*.

[r] in words like *port* [pɔrt], *pore*, *pour* [pɔr], *horrible* ['hɔrəbl], *border*, *boarder* ['bɔrdər], *morning*, *mourning* ['mɔrniŋ].

- No. 9 [ʊ] is a close back vowel, but compared with No. 10, it has a lower and more advanced tongue-position, and less tension. It occurs in *put* [pʊt], *good* [gʊd], *pull* [pʊl], *soot* [sʊt], *poor* [pʊr], *tourist* ['tʊrəst].
- No. 10 [u] is a close back vowel, generally tense, long and non-diphthongal. It occurs in *pool* [puːl], *food* [fuːd], *suit* [suːt], *glue* [gluː], *due*, *dew* [duː] or [djuː], *nephew* ['nefjuː].
- No. 11 [ʌ] is an unrounded half-open back vowel which, like its GA counterpart, has generally a more advanced tongue-position than the corresponding vowel in SSB. It occurs in *putt* [pʌt], *lunch* [lʌntʃ], *funny* ['fʌni], *Montreal* [,mʌntri'ɔl].
- No. 12 [ə] is a central vowel, with tongue-height midway between open and close. It occurs in weakly stressed syllables in words like *above* [ə'baʊ], *villa* ['vɪlə], *happen* ['hæpən], *beacon* ['biːkən], *horses* ['hɔrsəz], *wicked* ['wɪkəd].

7. The Diphthongs

- No. 13 [ei] has as its first element the half-close front vowel [e] which is prominent, and as its second, a relatively faint [i]-glide. It occurs in *bay* [bei], *late* [leɪt], *paint* [peɪnt], *daily* ['deɪli], *delay* [di'lei]. With many speakers this diphthong takes the place of the vowel [ɛ] in front of [g] in words like *egg* [eɪg], *leg* [leɪg], *peg* [peɪg], etc.
- No. 14 [ou] has the half-close back rounded vowel [o] as its first and more prominent element, which is followed by a relatively faint [u]-glide. It occurs in *beau*, *bow* [bəʊ], *boat* [bəʊt], *boast* [bəʊst], *below* [bi'ləʊ], *bellow* ['beləʊ].¹⁰
- No. 15 [ae] has as its first and more prominent element the open vowel [a] which is acoustically intermediate between No. 5 and No. 6. The second element is a glide which usually reaches no higher than the half-close front position. This diphthong occurs in *by*, *buy* [bae], *dial* ['daeəl], *ride* [raed],

¹⁰ See also No. 15, p. 9.

file [fael], *time* [taem], *alive* [ə'laev], *prize* [praɪz], *withe* [raeð], *find* [faend], *mild* [maeld].

- No. 16 [ɛi] starts with a very short central vowel like No. 12, and moves rapidly to a longer close front vowel [i]. Although the stronger stress falls on the first element, the second seems to have almost as much prominence because of its greater length. This diphthong occurs in *bite* [bait], *like* [laɪk], *right* [raɪt], *life* [laɪf], *price* [praɪs], *pint* [paɪnt].
- No. 17 [aʊ] has a prominent first element like No. 6, followed by a glide which usually reaches the position of No. 9. It occurs in *bough* [baʊ], *towel* ['taʊəl], *loud* [laʊd], *rouse* [raʊz], *fowl* [faʊl], *town* [taʊn], *found* [faʊnd].
- No. 18 [aʊ] starts from a very short vowel like No. 11 and moves rapidly to a longer close back vowel. Although the stronger stress falls on the first element, the second, being longer, seems to have almost as much prominence. This diphthong occurs in *lout* [laʊt], *house* [haʊs], *mouth* [maʊθ], *mount* [maʊnt].
- No. 19 [ɒe] has as its first element a vowel like No. 7 and as its second a glide reaching the half-close front position. It occurs in *boy* [bɒe], *oil* [ɒel], *noise* [nɒez], *voice* [vɒes], *oyster* ['ɒestər], *annoy* [ə'nɒe], *royal* ['rɒeəl].
- No. 20 [ɪu] occurs occasionally in place of [ju], having a short vocalic first element like No. 3 instead of [j]. Although the second element is longer than the first, the first may have the stronger stress. Prominence seems to fluctuate between the two elements and often seems to be equally distributed between both. This diphthong may occur in words like *few* [fiu], *puny* ['piɪni], *review* [ri'viu].

8. The Consonants

In all forms of English, including the North American varieties, the consonant system has been relatively stable since the Middle Ages. Hence, in comparison with the vowels which reflect the existing wide range of regional variations, the Van. consonants are found to have fewer noteworthy peculiarities.

9. The following consonants occur in Van. :

[p]	[t]	[k]	[f]	[θ]	[s]	[š]	
[b]	[d]	[g]	[v]	[ð]	[z]	[ž]	
[m]	[n]	[ŋ]	[r]	[l]	[j]	[w]	[h]

as well as the affricates [tš] and [dž]. Most of these are identical with their counterparts in SSB and GA, but a few, viz., [t], [s], [z], [r], [l], [j], [w], merit special attention.

10. The distinction between post-tonic, intervocalic [t] and [d] has been lost in natural Van. speech. The [t] in this position has been voiced, so that *matter* and *madder* are both pronounced ['mædər] *hit it* and *hid it*, both [hɪd it]. Evidence of this voicing of [t] is provided by the local children's occasional misspelling of words like *patio* which appears as 'padio', or *teeter-totter* which is spelled 'teeder-todder', reflecting the pronunciations ['pædiou] and ['tidər-tədər]. This feature and the one described in § 11 are, of course, widely diffused in North American English generally, but not in contemporary British English.

11. The [t] in the intervocalic cluster [nt] seems to have undergone a similar voicing, but the resultant cluster [nd] has been further simplified by the complete loss of the plosive, so that we now hear ['tweni] for *twenty*, ['pleni] for *plenty*, [wɪnər] for *winter*, ['senər] for *centre*, ['ɪnər,vju] for *interview* and [tə'rɒnou] or even ['trɒnou] for *Toronto*.

12. The sound of [t] is, with many Van. speakers, intrusive between [l] or [n] and [s] in words like *sense* [sents], *Wilson* [wɪltsən], *also* ['ɔltsou].

13. Among the young folk in Van. there is a marked tendency to use a dorsal type of articulation for [s] and [z] instead of the usual alveolar pronunciation. This practice gives these sounds a somewhat lisped effect and may be linked originally with a foreign-language background. It is, however, more frequently encountered in the speech of the girls than in that of the boys, and may be only a fashion that has caught on.¹¹

14. The Van. [r] is the alveolar fricative consonant now common to most types of English except the Scottish varieties. It is markedly retroflex. A medio-palatal or central type of [r] with lowered tongue-tip is also heard, a variant which, strangely enough, has an acoustic quality almost identical with the alveolar sound.¹² The Van. [r] is pronounced in all positions in the word, e.g., *rare* [rər], *Arab* ['erəb], *farm* [farm]. It very often has syllabic value in words like *fur*, *fir* [fr], *bird* [brd], *dirty*

¹¹ For the imitation of 'fashionable' pronunciation as distinct from unconscious sound changes, see H. C. Wyld, *HCME*, p. 211, 1. 34 ff.

¹² See C. K. Thomas, *IPAE*, pp. 66-67.

[ˈdrdɪ], *barber* [ˈbɑːbr], *murmur* [ˈmɜːmr]. As will be seen from the list of vowels above (No. 6.), the [r]-sound exercises a strong influence over the vowel preceding it, often causing neighbouring vowels to fall together and producing special variants not found in other phonetic contexts.

15. The [ɪ]-sound in Van. has the marked velar resonance typical of Scots and North American English generally.¹³ Unlike SSB, the Van. [ɪ] has no 'light' or palatal variant in initial or intervocalic positions: it is 'dark' in all positions, e.g., in *leaf* [lɪf] and *feeling* [ˈfiːlɪŋ] as well as in *feel* [fiːl], and initially as well as finally in *little* [ˈlɪdl], *lull* [lɪl]. Occasionally [ɪ] has an opening effect on certain vowels, so that *well* tends to become [wæɪ], *yellow* [ˈjæləʊ], *Ellen* [ˈælən], while *canal* becomes [kəˈnæl], *shallow* [ˈʃæləʊ] and *Allan* [ˈalən]. Occasionally an orthographic *l*, which has been silent for centuries, is restored giving spelling-pronunciations like [ˈsalmən] or [ˈsɒlmən] for *salmon* and [ˈɑːlmənd] or [ˈɒlmənd] for *almond*. On the other hand the orthographic *l* in *solder*, universally sounded in British English, is silent in Van. [ˈsɒdər].

16. The replacement of [j] by [ɪ] has already been mentioned in the discussion of the diphthong [ɪu] (7. No. 20). The group [ju] is frequently simplified in Van. by the complete loss of [j] after the alveolar consonants [t], [d], [n], [s], [l] as in *tube* [tub], *tune* [tun], *duke* [duk], *due*, *dew* [du], *new* [nu], *nuisance* [ˈnʊsəns], *sue* [su], *absolute* [æbsəˈlut]. SSB has preserved the [j] in most of these words but the modern trend is to drop it after [s] and [l], thus agreeing with the Van. pronunciation in words like *sue*, *suit*, *absolute* as shown above.

17. The younger folk in Van. seem largely to have lost the [hw] sound, the unvoiced counterpart of [w]. With them *witch* and *which* have fallen together as [wɪts̩], *wile* and *while*, as [wæɪ], *weal* and *wheel*, as [wɪl]. There is, however, no sign of weakening in the aspirate [h] occurring singly as in *house* [haʊs], *horrible* [ˈhɔːrəbl], *behind* [biˈhaend].

18. In conclusion it must be emphasized that there are variable features in Van. even among the younger people. Before we can form a clear picture of their relative importance or of their patterning, intensive research will have to be done with groups of speakers large enough to give statistically significant figures.¹⁴

¹³ See D. Jones, *PE*, p. 89, Nos. 301, 302.

¹⁴ In a subsequent article it is hoped to discuss some of the phonemic problems that arise in connection with the distribution of the vowel sounds in Vancouver English.

BOOK REVIEWS / COMPTES RENDUS CRITIQUES

¶ **Logic and Language**, by Bernard F. Huppé and Jack Kaminsky. New York, Knopf, 1956. Pp. viii - 216 - iv. (Reviewed by Raven I. McDavid, Jr., Western Reserve University).

One of the first of the new Knopf English texts, **Logic and Language** augurs well for the quality of the series. It is lucidly written, but not written down; it concerns itself with careless reasoning, not only a more serious flaw in writing than the better advertised lack of grammar but actually the real defect in many sentences labeled 'ungrammatical'. But even more important — and the justification for a review in a linguistic journal — it accepts the Whorfian thesis that the language habits of a speech-community may influence the thought-processes of its members. For this reason the authors follow their introduction with two chapters on aspects of linguistics ('The Mechanism of Language' and 'Meaning in Language') before presenting the techniques of deductive and inductive logic.

'The Mechanism of Language' emphasizes that a language is a system of communication, and not necessarily the same system as another language might be: each language is a set of phonological and morphological conventions, determined by the habits of the community in which it is used. Indicating — as all linguists but too few laymen recognize — that speech is basic and writing derivative, it describes the vocal mechanism, summarizes the phonemic principle, and demonstrates that a given sequence of phonemes can be meaningful in a given language only if it conforms to structural patterns in the language and is accepted by native speakers as having referential significance. For example, /ŋæS/ is composed of English phonemes, but not in a pattern in which speakers of English use them; *mimsy* — like the other forms in 'Jabberwocky' — is composed of English phonemes in familiar sequences and occurs in a position in which English adjectives may occur, but is not habitually used by speakers of English to designate or describe anything.

'Meaning in Language' not only contains the predictable discussion of semantic meaning and semantic change, but — more interesting to the linguist — a useful treatment of syntactic or differential meaning, and a brief sketch of comparative Indo-European and the history of the English language. The emphasis is again on the system and the culture. The meaning of an English utterance today is determined not only by the words themselves but by the sequences in which they occur, as word order has become more important than inflection as a grammatical device. The authors emphasize that linguistic change and the establishment of new standards are brought about by society, not by individuals; even in the establishment of new words or new meanings the individual has counted for little.

None of this, of course, is new to the linguist. But much of it is new, or said with a new freshness, in a text designed for undergraduate courses in writing. The exercise materials should be stimulating; I was particularly delighted at the inclusion of Whorf's formula for the English syllable (from 'Linguistics as an Exact Science'). The strong influence of Fries may irk those attached to other structural approaches;

however, they should remember that Fries's discussions are more generally accessible to laymen than other treatments of structure. On only one small detail of fact would I quibble: any Ontario taxpayer knows that the word *reeve* is not obsolete, though the official so named functions somewhat differently in a Canadian township than he did on a medieval estate. In all, the authors are to be commended, and their book should enjoy wide use.

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¶ **Language as Choice and Chance**, by G. Herdan. Groningen, Noordhoff, 1956. Pp. xvi - 356 (Reviewed by Raven I. McDavid, Jr., Western Reserve University).

During the past thirty years, linguists have not only demonstrated the validity of linguistics as a scientific discipline in its own right, but have begun to explore systematically the affiliations of linguistics with other sciences, physical and social. And at the same time, workers in other sciences have brought their point of view to bear on linguistic problems. **Language as Choice and Chance** is a study of the latter type, the work of a professional statistician, demonstrating how statistical methods may help the linguist in arriving at his conclusions.

A detailed appraisal of Herdan's book would require more space than this journal can allow, and involve more mathematics than the usual linguist has at his disposal. But it will be of interest to know what kinds of problems Herdan has subjected to statistical attack:

- Chaucer's authorship of *The Equatorie of the Planetis*¹;
- The authorship of the *Imitatio Christie*: Gerson or Thomas à Kempis?
- The consistency of the vocabulary of twentieth-century political writing in English;
- The frequency distribution of words, grammatical forms, letters, and phonemes in various types of writing and speech;
- Average word-length as a touchstone of an author's style;
- The characteristic phonemic sequences in a given language;
- The rate of growth of the vocabulary of literary English;
- Stylistic problems of Greek and Latin hexameters;
- The classification of Chinese characters for lexicographical purposes;
- The theory of the translation machine.

In treating these problems Herdan offers statistical tables, mathematical formulae, and probability conclusions, with allowance for standard-error deviations. Even when the statistical evidence alone does not solve the problem, it suggests profitable avenues for future investigation; and sometimes — as with the greater average word-length in the works of Johnson and Gibbon — Herdan strikingly demonstrates what oft was thought but ne'er so succinctly expressed.

¹ Herdan had previously published his account of the *Equatorie* problem in *Language* 32 (1956): 254-59.

² It is refreshing to note that Herdan finds the weak spot of J. W. Perry's simulated machine translation of Russian (and essentially of all the highly publicized and subsidized work in mechanical documentation): deliberately or unconsciously ignoring the linguistic structures involved. For a more detailed treatment of this particular problem, see Martin Josa's review of *Machine Translation of Languages: Fourteen Essays*, *Language* 32, (1956): 293-98.

Despite the imposing mathematics and the stimulating comments, linguists will probably not be satisfied — chiefly because they would like to see statistical analysis applied to a wider variety of problems. Much of Herdan's best presentation deals with lexical, rather than grammatical problems — though he is obviously aware that the latter are more fundamental.² Nowhere is there any attack on problems of non-Indo-European linguistic structure. Statistical theory would undoubtedly be illuminating for problems of syntax in American Indian languages, conceivably for the relative validity of competing phonemic analyses of the same language, such as the Trager-Smith and Pike-Fries analyses of English. In other words, we wish Herdan had tackled the problems which disturb us; realistically speaking, however, we should recognize such problems as our own responsibility — problems best dealt with by linguists trained in statistics rather than by professional statisticians who have become interested in linguistics.³ And certainly no linguist can read *Language as Choice and Chance* without becoming more concerned about the statistical foundations of his data.

* * *

¶ *Proceedings of the Seventh International Congress of Linguists (London, 1-6 September 1952)*. Published under the Auspices of the C.I.P.L., London (International University Booksellers), 1956. [Part I: List of Delegates, Speeches & Preliminary Reports, 178 p. Part II: Plenary Sessions, Papers & Discussion, 181-575 p. 9 Pl. — General Editor: F. Norman, Assistant Editor: P. F. Ganz.] (Compte rendu de J.-P. Vinay, Université de Montréal).

Il s'écoule souvent un laps de temps assez considérable entre la tenue des Congrès et la publication de leur travaux. Il n'est donc pas trop tard pour signaler les deux tomes ci-dessus, dont le second surtout nous intéresse à bien des égards. Selon l'usage adopté par les Congrès précédents, le Tome I publie les rapports préliminaires, réponses aux questionnaires adressés par le Secrétariat aux collègues ayant confirmé leur intention de prendre part aux Sessions. Parmi les communications imprimées dans ce Tome I, nous relevons particulièrement les discussions sur l'interaction du sens et de la forme en linguistique, menées sous la direction du Professeur J. R. Firth. La question est d'importance, surtout pour les universités comme les nôtres, où l'étude de la sémantique et de la stylistique permet souvent de glisser vers des considérations purement structurales. Le lien sens/forme, ou expression/contenu, pour reprendre la terminologie hjelmslevienne, est essentiel pour nos étudiants. Une recherche exclusive dans le domaine de la forme pure est de nature à repousser ceux qui voudraient venir aux études de linguistique; par ailleurs, les problèmes de sémantique ne sont pas un vain mot, particulièrement en Amérique du nord, où l'absence d'outils vraiment adéquats, dictionnaires, atlas, etc., pose continuellement des difficultés inextricables. Il faut donc saluer avec intérêt la conclusion de J. R. Firth... "I would emphasize that meaning is decisive for all branches of linguistics, and that the strictly linguistic interpretation of this fundamental concept is of high importance for the development of the science of language through the co-operation of all the so-called schools of linguistics" (op. cit. p. 9).

² Although the bibliography for such a pioneering work as this cannot be exhaustive, one would be happier to find some mention of the statistical work of David Reed, both in Middle English and in present-day dialectology. One might also wish that Herdan could have published his book under conditions which would have eliminated the annoyingly frequent typographical errors.

Dans le Tome II, nous notons l'intéressant exposé de O. Funke sur "The Position of Language in Philosophy, Logic, and Social Anthropology" (248-273), où l'on trouvera un tour d'horizon des différentes théories linguistiques relatives aux principes d'analyse des parties du discours; il n'est pas inutile de faire ainsi le point sur les divergences entre linguistes, présentés ici sous l'angle de la linguistique européenne. Vers la fin du même Tome, on notera une communication essentielle de Delattre-Cooper-Liberman-Gerstman sur la **synthèse de la parole** telle qu'elle s'effectue à l'heure actuelle aux laboratoires Haskins de New-York. On sait l'importance des travaux de cette équipe de chercheurs dont les publications sont déjà nombreuses: la communication dont il s'agit ici, commentée par plusieurs critiques mais qui n'était pas accessible jusqu'à présent, porte sur l'intelligibilité des spectrogrammes synthétiques, ce qui permet aux auteurs d'insister sur l'importance des sons de passage en phonétique "These transitions are the acoustic counterparts of the rapid articulatory shifts involved in passing from one speech sound to the next". Les résultats de la recherche montrent que ces sons de passage ne jouent pas un rôle accessoire dans la reconnaissance des éléments de la chaîne parlée: ce sont au contraire **les données essentielles de la compréhension** ("the principal acoustic cues for the recognition of phonemes"), ce qui doit pousser les professeurs de langues à présenter de plus en plus les éléments sonores dans leur contexte naturel, avant d'entraîner leurs étudiants à reconnaître globalement les énoncés proposés. Neuf planches illustrent ces travaux, qui ont considérablement progressé depuis 1952, comme on a pu le constater par ailleurs.

Le seul délégué officiel du Canada inscrit était Mr. J. Reidy, de Western Ontario. Il faut espérer que la délégation canadienne sera plus considérable au Congrès d'Oslo et que les communications refléteront certaines des préoccupations particulières aux universités du pays.

* *
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M. André Martinet, Institut de Linguistique, Faculté des Lettres, Sorbonne, Paris, 6e, France annonce la parution d'un nouveau périodique linguistique, les **Travaux** qui feront suite aux Conférences dont la publication s'est arrêtée avec le volume XI (1952-53). A ce sujet, M. Martinet a fait circuler une documentation sur "La notion de neutralisation dans la morphologie et le lexique" où l'on insiste sur "la conviction fort répandue que l'expérience acquise dans l'analyse des unités distinctives doit faciliter la compréhension des phénomènes plus complexes du plan de la signification".

Tous ceux qu'intéresse le problème de la classification des unités significatives auront intérêt à s'adresser à M. Martinet et à répondre à son questionnaire. — **J. P. V.**

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[Abbreviations/Abréviations: E: English, *anglais*; F: French, *français*; H: Spanish, *espagnol*; SL: Slavic languages, *langues slaves*; L: Linguistics, *linguistique*; PH: Phonetics, *phonétique*; AM: Amerindian languages, *langues amérindiennes*; ROM: Romance languages, *langues romanes*; TR: Translation, *traduction*; LEX: Lexicography, *lexicographie*; ANTH: Anthropology, *anthropologie*; D: German, *allemand*.]

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**CONFERENCE OF LEARNED • CONGRÈS DES SOCIÉTÉS
SOCIETIES SAVANTES**

**University of / Université d'
Ottawa
June 12-13 Juin**

Dear Member,

For your convenience the tentative programme for the June meeting has been printed with this issue of the Journal. We are looking forward to an enjoyable two days. Join us if you possibly can.

**WALTER S. AVIS,
Secretary-Treasurer**

• Wednesday, June 12 / Jeudi 12 juin :

- 9.15 a.m. *Executive Meeting / Réunion du bureau*
- 10.00 a.m. *General Business Meeting / Assemblée générale*
- 2.30 p.m. *1st Group of Papers / Communications (1)*
1. R. W. Jeanes (U. of T.), "The Planning and Operation of a Language Laboratory on a Modest Budget." (30 min.)
 2. R. J. Gregg (U.B.C.), "The Phonemic Grouping of Vowels in Vancouver English." (15 min.)
 3. C. M. Cowan (CSIL), "The Canadian Summer Institute of Linguistics." (15 min.)
 4. Abbé R. Charbonneau (U. de M.), "Les diphthongues du canadien français." (30 min.)
 5. Discussion.
- 4.30 p.m. *Demonstration of Language Laboratory Equipment (Magneticon).*
- 5.30 p.m. *Vin d'honneur offered by the University of Ottawa / Vin d'honneur offert par l'Université d'Ottawa.*



• Thursday, June 13 / Jeudi 13 juin :

- 10.00 a.m. *Panel Discussion / Colloque :*
- "Bilingual Problems in Canada — Problèmes de bilinguisme au Canada"
- Chairman : W. F. Mackey (U. Laval)*

¶ R. P. Bernard Mailhot, o.p.; J. St. Clair-Sobell (U.B.C.); J.-P. Vinay (U. de M.); Anita Robillard (Cornell).

— Discussion.

12.30 p.m. *Luncheon offered by the University of Ottawa*
Déjeuner offert par l'Université d'Ottawa.

2.30 p.m. *2nd Group of Papers / Communications (2)*

1. J. B. Rudnykyj (U. of Man.), "Canadianization of Slavic Proper Names from the Linguistic Point of View." (20 min.)
2. C. J. Lovell, "How Electronics Can Help the Lexicographer." (20 min.)
3. W. Lehn (Cornell), "Some Aspects of Low German Phonology." (30 min.)
4. G. M. Story (Memorial U.), "Research in the Language and Place Names of Newfoundland." (20 min.)
5. Discussion

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BULLETIN DE RENOUVELLEMENT DE COTISATION

La Revue de l'Association Canadienne de Linguistique vous rappelle que ce numéro est le dernier de 1956-57. Elle serait fière de vous compter à nouveau parmi ses abonnés pour 1957-58 aux mêmes conditions que l'an dernier, soit \$2.00. L'abonnement annuel part de juin.

MEMBERSHIP RENEWAL SLIP

The Journal of the Canadian Linguistic Association reminds you that this issue is the last for 1956-1957. We would be glad to have your membership for 1957-58 on the same terms as before, namely \$2.00. The membership year begins in June.

Nom/Name _____

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